1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI 1 Sinkiang AI 1

widespread fighting broke out, however, and American reporters who went up to Sinkiang after the first reports tended to minimize the significance of the incidents.[96]

The exact location of the frontier in this region remains unclear. Recent Chinese maps show the entire Baitik Bogda within Sinkiang, and the Outer Mongolian frontier running along the main crest of the Altai.[97] Older maps, however, both Russian (Tsarist) and British, show the frontier running either right through the Baitik Bogda or somewhat to the south of the main height of the hills.

In December 1948 the Chinese Government made a new move of major importance by dropping Masud Sabri as Chairman of the Province and replacing him with Burkhan, the former Vice-Chairman, who as a "middle-of-the-roader" was more acceptable to the Kulja dissidents. Burkhan, a Russian Tatar by origin, with large trading interests, had been a man of influence in Sinkiang since Tsarist times. He had managed to maintain himself under the regimes of Yang Tseng-hsin, Sheng Shih-ts'ai, and the Kuomintang.

In January 1949 Chang Chih-chung returned to Sinkiang to attempt to negotiate a new Sino-Soviet economic treaty, to replace a ten-year agreement signed in 1939 under the regime of Sheng Shih-ts'ai. It was reported at the time that the Russians were attempting to acquire monopoly rights in mining and trade. There was also speculation that on the Chinese side an elaborate maneuver was being carried out to create a conflict of interest between the Russians and the Chinese Communists, by granting to the Russians exclusive rights in this frontier sector of Chinese territory. In the upshot, no new treaty was negotiated, but the Russian monopoly right to an air service between Komul and the

[96] See, for example, dispatch from Henry R. Lieberman, from Urumchi, August 27, 1948, in *New York Times*, September 8, 1948.

[97] See the map on p. 59 of the article by Chang Chih-yi, "Land Utilization and Settlement Possibilities in Sinkiang," in *Geographical Review*, Vol. 39, No. 1, New York, 1949.

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI 1 Sinkiang AI 1
Kazak

Kazakhs is indicated by the name "Kazakh," which is believed to mean "a fugitive or masterless man who has separated himself from his tribe" (or overlord). The same name, modified by Slavic pronunciation, was adopted by the Russians, Poles, and Ukrainians who became the Russian Cossacks.

In the sixteenth century the newly formed Kazakh Khanate split into three hordes, forming a loose federation which united only rarely, under stress of war. This deterioration of the former unity was a result of the increased wealth of the Kazakhs, obtained by their conquest of some of the southern oasis regions from the Uzbeks in the sixteenth century, which made the individual tribal Sultans less dependent on the economic and political protection of the Khan. Of these three hordes, it was the easternmost, or the "Old Horde," whose grazing lands reached east of the present Soviet-Chinese border into Sinkiang.

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the Russians began to penetrate into the territory of the Kazakhs and by the end of the nineteenth century had succeeded in colonizing the territory of the three hordes, except for the easternmost part of the Old Horde which remained under Chinese domination. Even after the drawing of a border line between the bulk of the Kazakhs in the west and the small splinter group in Chinese territory, however, many aspects of the common historical development continued, since the nomads were no respecters of national boundaries and migrated back and forth across the frontier which cut through their tribal lines.

The main grazing grounds of the Sinkiang Kazakhs are along the borders between Sinkiang and the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic and between Sinkiang and the Mongolian People's Republic. From the Tekes and Kunguz Rivers in the Ili region they range northeastward to the Chuguchak region and then southeastward along the Mongolian Altai. There are even Kazakhs on the other side of this frontier, under the sovereignty of the Mongolian People's Republic.

The Kazakhs are pastoral nomads, herding sheep, goats, horned cattle, horses, and camels. Felt tents are used in the summer, but

The original home of the Kirghiz was on the upper Yenisei River. The oldest Chinese references appear to be under the name *Chienchun*, at about the opening of the Christian era. The tribal or clan name *Burut* appears to confirm their northern origin, and an ancient connection with the ancestors of the Buryat Mongols. In 840, Kirghiz war bands defeated the Uighurs in Mongolia, causing some of the Uighurs to move south into Sinkiang. In the tenth century the Kirghiz themselves were defeated by the Khara Khitai. A part of the Kirghiz then moved back to the Yenisei River, and a part started on a gradual migration southwest toward the region which they inhabit today, where they are mentioned by a Turkish source of the sixteenth century. Like the Kazakhs, the Kirghiz were conquered by the Russians in the nineteenth century, except for those who remained within the Manchu-Chinese hegemony.

The Sinkiang Kirghiz officially number 65,248. Like those across the border, they are a mountain people. They are distributed from the Tekes Valley in the Tien Shan as far east as Aksu, and along the mountains west of the Sinkiang-Soviet border down to the Pamirs and the Karakoram Mountains.

Like the Kazakhs, the Kirghiz are pastoral nomads; but they are Alpine nomads in contrast to the Kazakhs, who are steppe nomads. While some groups of the Kazakhs spend their winters in the protection of the foothills below the main mountain ranges, and while their winter quarters are owned by individual families, the Kirghiz establish their winter quarters on the banks of rivers and the whole clan occupies common winter quarters. Their summer pastures, unlike those of the Kazakhs, are high up in the mountains. Each clan moves freely up and down between winter quarters and high summer pastures, but is limited in horizontal movement by the presence of other clans in neighboring valleys. Basically, their cattle-breeding economy is the same as that of the Kazakhs, except that they own more horned cattle including yaks which are useful pack animals for mountain travel. They are considerably poorer in total number of livestock than the Kazakhs, but have somewhat more agriculture, some of it irrigated.

Kirghiz is a Turkic language, more closely related to Chaghatai

563* 131 174

563* 161 221 361

[231]

000

[p. 133]

Kirghiz
Mongol

*563 Kirghiz is a Turkic language, more closely related to Chaghatai
197 Turkish and Uighur than to Kazakh. The same language is spoken
212 by the Kirghiz on the Soviet side of the frontier. Like the Kazakhs, the Kirghiz in Sinkiang are almost completely illiterate, and the only written form for the language is the Arabic alphabet; while in Soviet Kirghizia, illiteracy has decreased sharply with the introduction of the new Kirghiz alphabet, originally based on the Latin script but now using an adapted Cyrillic script.

Like the Kazakhs, the Kirghiz are nominal Mohammedans but with strong shamanistic holdovers. Radlov, a century ago, maintained that they considered themselves to be exemplary Moslems and were less tolerant of non-Moslems than the Kazakhs. This is evidenced in their folk literature in which the struggle against nonbelievers plays an important role.

*563 *Mongols.* The Mongols of Sinkiang, numbering some 63,000
101 people, are badly split up and unevenly distributed in widely
361 separated sections of the province. The largest concentrations are in the Chuguchak and Ili administrative regions, in each of which they number almost 25,000. Another group totaling about 13,000 is found in the highlands of the Kharashahr region. There are a few along the northeastern section of the frontier between Sinkiang and the Mongolian People's Republic, and other scattered fragments in the northern part of the province.

*563 The area most clearly dominated by the Mongols is along the
131 western end of the frontier with the Mongolian People's Repub-
361 lic. Yet the Mongols in this region constitute only a small fraction of the total number in the province, while the areas in which they are most heavily concentrated, such as Chuguchak and Ili, are in turn dominated by Kazakhs.

*563 The geographic fragmentation of the Mongols is explained
361 largely by their historical vicissitudes. They are divided into three
174 major tribal groups: (1) the Western Mongols, who include the Ölöts, the Torguts, and the Khoshots; (2) the Chahar Mongols, and (3) the Urianghai Mongols; but the political units do not
*563 correspond with these tribal divisions. The Mongols are adminis-
631 tratively organized into three leagues and two special groups.

[P. 134]

Tadjik

*563 The Sarikol Valley lies
● 131 close to the point where the Chinese,
Soviet and Afghan frontiers meet, but the frontiers are not well defined, have been disputed in the past, and may be disputed
[466] again. The Sarikolis are resentful of Chinese rule, especially because of the burdens imposed on them for supplying men and animals, without pay or for insufficient pay, to keep open a high mountain route between Sinkiang and India which is used by official travelers and to a smaller extent by traders. This discontent might take the form of an attempt to break away from Chinese rule, but if so it is not clear what other people they would prefer to join.

*563 There are two Iranian languages spoken in adjoining districts.
197 One is the Pamir group of dialects, spoken in the Wakhan Valley of Afghanistan and in the Mountain Badakshan Autonomous Region enclosed within the Tajik Soviet Socialist Republic. The other is Tajik. Thus the question whether the Sarikolis speak Tajik or Pamir Iranian is important, but there is as yet no authoritative answer.

*563 The Sarikolis are said by Grenard to be a remnant of the early
174 inhabitants of Khotan who left documents dating from the period 200–400 A.D. in the Saka language, a now extinct Indo-Iranian tongue. T'ang Dynasty Chinese records likewise describe the Sarikolis as identical in external appearance and language with
[779] the inhabitants of Khotan. At that time they were devout adherents of Buddhism, maintaining no less than ten monasteries in their little kingdom. The Chinese first conquered the region in the T'ang Dynasty and established there a military post which marked the extreme point of Chinese military occupation in Central Asia.

*563 Subsequently the people were converted to Islam. They now
779 adhere to the Ismaili sect of the Moslem faith, which acknowl-
212 edges the Agha Khan in Bombay as its head. Culturally they are extremely backward, and are still without a written language.

*563 The people live for the most part as settled cultivators despite
241 the fact that the Sarikol Valley nowhere drops below 10,000 feet.
311 Irrigation is practiced, and the main crops are oats, barley, and
161

[p. 138]

CHAPTER V Geography and Economic Development

Mountains, Deserts, Steppes, and People

NOWHERE in the world is the influence of geography on people more dramatic than in Inner Asia. Sinkiang lies in the heart of a continent, as remote as possible from moisture-bearing winds from the oceans. On three sides it is enclosed by mighty mountain masses and on the eastern side by wide stretches of barren plateau. The snow-clad Tien Shan or Heavenly Mountains, rising to heights of 23,000 feet, extend across the province from west to east, dividing it into two unequal parts. The southern two thirds are the Tarim Basin, the land of oases and deserts. The northern third is Jungaria, traditionally the land of the nomads. The total area of the province is about 600,000 square miles, or twice the size of Texas.

The Tarim Basin is a desert which at its lowest point is actually below sea level. Here men cannot live and farm by rainfall, which averages less than four inches a year. Water is the gift of the great mountains which fringe the desert on the north, west and south, rising in places to more than 20,000 feet. From the melting upland snows and glaciers, rivers cut their way down to the central oval desert. Where each river leaves the foothills, men dig canals to spread the water out in a fan, forming an oasis, so that the edge of the desert along the foot of the mountains is dotted by a series of oases. A trade road, looping around the desert, links the oases like beads on a string, forming a U with the open end toward the east.

[p. 152]

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI 1 Sinkiang AI 1

Pastoral Nomadism

Figures for 1943 show 11,720,000 sheep and goats in Sinkiang, 1,550,000 cattle, 870,000 horses, and 90,000 camels.[1] Most of these are in Jungaria, and most are pastured in steppe land by nomad Kazakhs and Mongols. Smaller numbers are owned in the alpine pastures of the Kirghiz, and others by settled people on the fringes of cultivated land. Sheep, followed by beef cattle and draft cattle, are the most important market animals, and wool and hides are of course also sold. The Chinese provincial authorities like to demand horses from nomads in payment of taxes, which limits the number for sale. Camels are bred both for use by the nomads themselves in their migrations and for sale to Chinese trading caravans.

There are great variations in the techniques of herding animals. Cattle, horses, and camels each prosper best on a different kind of pasture. The best feeding grounds for one kind may lie quite distant from the best range for the other kinds. There are even considerable differences between animals as similar to each other as the yak and the cow, or the sheep and the goat. In the steppe pastures, sheep tend everywhere to prevail as the basic form of property; so much so that the sheep is the unit of exchange value, in terms of which the prices of other kinds of property are quoted. The basic reason for this is that in the steppe environment the grasses which can be eaten by sheep are more numerous and more widely distributed than the preferred feed of any other kind of animal.[2]

By skillful herdsmanship, the different kinds of animals can be maintained in combination. Much depends on the selection of pasture, on deciding how long to remain on a pasture, when to move, and how long to make the marches. Nomads do not break

[1] Chang Chih-yi, unpublished field notes.

[2] A count taken in the steppe area of Tannu-Tuva, where conditions are in general similar to a great part of Jungaria, showed 600 plant varieties, of which cows eat 56, horses 82, but sheep as many as 570.

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI 1 Sinkiang AI 1

APPENDIX III International Boundaries on the Pamirs

In the decades of Anglo-Russian rivalry described in Chapter II, the eventual junction of the expanding frontiers of the British and Russian Empires was an open question. In 1895, however, as part of the easing of relations between Britain and Russia, a Pamir Boundary Commission was empowered to lay down a jointly recognized frontier. 131

This Commission consisted of a Russian Mission under General Shveikovskii, which surveyed the approaches from the northern side, and a British Mission under General Gerard, which surveyed the approaches from the southern side. The two Missions met at Lake Victoria "and from that point to the eastward demarcated the line which was thereafter to divide Russian from British interests in highest Asia." This phrasing is cited from the article "Pamirs" in the Eleventh Edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica (1911), by Sir Thomas H. Holdich, who as Colonel Holdich had been an important member of the British Pamir Mission of 1895.

The principal sources for the description of the frontier thus established are:

1. *Report of the Proceedings of the Pamir Boundary Commission*, Calcutta, 1897, with chapters by Maj.-Gen. Gerard, Col. Holdich, Lt. Col. Wahab, and others. 131 112
2. *The Indian Borderland*, by T. H. Holdich, London, 1901.
3. Article "Pamirs," by T. H. H. (Sir Thomas H. Holdich),

[p. 259]

1: Lattimore H-4 (no date) 1950 AI1 Sinkiang AI1

131 in *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, Eleventh Ed., Cambridge-New York, 1911.

112 4. *Anglo-Russian Relations concerning Afghanistan*, 1837–1907, by William Habberton, Urbana, Illinois, 1937.

5. "The Pamirs and the Source of the Oxus," by G. N. Curzon, *Journal* of the Royal Geographical Society, Vol. VIII, London, 1896.

131 The Anglo-Russian survey resulted in an "Agreement between the Governments of Great Britain and Russia with regard to the spheres of influence of the two countries in the region of the Pamirs" (1895). The essential paragraphs, cited here from Habberton's book (Appendix III, pp. 91–92) are:

> 4. Her Britannic Majesty's Government and the Government of His Majesty the Emperor of Russia engage to abstain from exercising any political influence or control, the former to the north, the latter to the south, of the above line of demarcation.
> 5. Her Britannic Majesty's Government engage that the territory lying within the British sphere of influence between the Hindu Kush and the line running from the East end of Lake Victoria to the Chinese frontier shall form part of the territory of the Ameer of Afghanistan, that it shall not be annexed to Great Britain, and that no military posts or fortifications shall be established in it.

000 In *The Indian Borderland* Holdich unofficially but authoritatively describes the effect of this wording (p. 284):

> [It] defined a buffer between ourselves and Russia. It is not an imposing buffer — this long attenuated arm of Afghanistan reaching out to touch China with the tips of its fingers. It is only eight miles wide at one part, and could be ridden across in a morning's ride.

Neither Afghanistan nor China, though their interests were affected, took part in this important survey and frontier delimita-

II

SINKIANG: THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

131 SINKIANG or Chinese Turkestan is a spacious attractive land of about
161 550,000 square miles, approximately two and a half times the size of France. Yet the province is inhabited only by about four million persons, or an average of less than nine per square mile. By way of contrast Kiangsu Province, which contains Shanghai and other teeming port cities, is one-fourteenth the size of Sinkiang and yet, before the war, had a population density more than one hundred times as great!

131 By nature a distant and self-contained area, Sinkiang is enclosed on three sides by mountains and on one side by desert and barren terrain. On the west are the T'ien Shan (Heavenly Mountains), the Pamirs, and the Karakorum Mountains; to the south, the lofty K'unlun Mountains of Tibet; on the extreme north, the little visited Altai ranges; and on the east, the Gobi of Mongolia and the Tsaidam wastelands of Western Ch'inghai or Kokonor.

133 The interior of Sinkiang does have vast expanses of desert. But the T'ien Shan extend from west to east through the center of the province, the Manas and the Tarim River systems moisten immense parts in the north and south respectively, and there are not a few luxuriant, well-watered oases at the bases of her encircling and bisecting mountains. The forested slopes of the Altai ranges and the northern T'ien Shan, the fertile regions alongside the Manas River in the north and throughout the Tarim River basin in the south, and the numerous dot-like oases in the interior—these form the bases for provincial cities and east-west communications.

103 In early times Chinese often referred to what is now Sinkiang as *Hsi Yü* ("The Western Regions") or as *T'ien-shan-nan-lu* and *T'ien-shan-pei-lu*, i.e., a "Road South of the Heavenly Mountains" and a "Road North of the Heavenly Mountains." These two latter names fitted the natural caravan highways which progressed westward from Chinese Kansu Province on either side of the Heavenly Mountains, weaving along and through the watered and cultivated areas.

2: Norins S-4 (1939-1941) 1944 AII Sinkiang AII

———, "Will China Save Its Far West?" *Asia* (December, 1939). 113
Zashchuk, G., "La situation économique de Sindsian," *Novyi Vostok (Nouvel Orient)*, No. 26-27 (1929), pp. 105-24.

The author has also consulted editions of the *China Year Book* which were issued from 1931 to 1939 as well as editions of the *Chinese Year Book* issued in the period, 1935 to 1941. Newspapers and periodicals not otherwise mentioned which have proved especially helpful include: the *China Daily News, Chinese News Service, Chinese Times, Contemporary China, Far Eastern Survey, Hsin Hua Jih-pao, Hsin-chiang Jih-pao (Sinkiang Daily News), Izvestiia, Kuo Min Wai Chiao, Life, New York Times,* and *PM*.

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30. *Chinese News Service,* October 5, 23, November 27, 1943; January 10, 19, February 3, 4, 16, 1944; *Kuo Min Wai Chiao,* I, 1 (January, 1943), p. 43; Samuel Chao, "China's Northwest Revitalized," *China at War,* XI, 2 (August, 1943); Li Yao-san, "K'en-min Tao Hsin-chiang Ch'ü-liao," *I-shih Pao,* September 22 (?), 1943. The author is indebted to William L. Holland, Institute of Pacific Relations, New York City, for use of this last-named source. The author here wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to Holland also for the use of certain other materials. These include: Ch'en Chi-jung, "T'ien-shan San-tu Wu Ts'ao," *Ta Kung Pao,* November 15-16, 1942; "Hsi-pei K'ai-fa Sheng Chung Chih Hsin-chiang Ts'ai-cheng Ching-chi," *Ts'ai-cheng P'ing-lun,* VIII, 5 (November, 1942); Lu Ko, "Hsin Hsin-chiang ti Chang-ch'eng: Sheng Shih-chi Hsien-sheng Fang-wen Chi," *Shang-wu Jih-pao,* November 10, 1942; and Tung Ching-kua, "Hsi-pei chih Sheng; Wu Sheng Ts'an-cheng-yüan T'an-hua; Chien-she Wan Tuan Chiao-t'ung Ti-i," *I-shih Pao,* October 22, 1942. Y. Y. Hsu, also of the Institute of Pacific Relations, has made a rough abstract of material from the four last named clippings, and the author has consulted that abstract as well as the original material. Holland has also made available two additional clippings: "Hsin-chiang Feng-ching Hsien," *Hsin Shu Pao,* September 12, 1943; and "Ti-hua T'ung-hsün," *Sao Tang Pao,* September 16, 1943; and he has permitted the author to consult Samuel Ming-chiu Chao's unpublished manuscript entitled, *China's Northwest* (dated Chungking, September 15, 1940). 000

32. There are apparently no definitive figures on the area of Sinkiang Province, and the various estimates have ranged from 400,000 to well over 700,000 square miles. Similarly, estimates of the Sinkiang population have differed—running from as low as one to as high as six million persons. The *China Handbook 1937-1943 A Comprehensive Survey of Major Developments in China in Six Years of War* (Ministry of Information of the Republic of China, compilers, New York, The MacMillan Company, 1943, pp. 1 and 2) offers a 1938 figure of 1,828,418 square kilometers (which converts roughly into 131 161

131 705,953 square miles) for the area, and a 1933 figure of 4,360,020 for the population of the province. In 1939 Owen Lattimore judged the Sinkiang area to be *"of the order of"* 161 600,000 square miles and the Sinkiang population *"of the order of"* 3,500,000 persons. *Vide: Inner Asian Frontiers of China* (American Geographical Society, Research Series No. 21, London, New York, Oxford University Press, 1940), pp. 10-11.

Since the Sheng Shih-ts'ai administration came to power, however, the Sinkiang people speak locally of their population as "four million persons." Cf. Tu Chung-yüan, *Sheng Shih-ts'ai yü Hsin Hsin-chiang*, fourth edition, Chungking [etc.], Life Book Company, 1939, p. 54; and Chao Lieh, "Hsin-chiang chin Ching-lu," *Kuei-lin Ta Kung Pao*, September 8, 1941. The present writer accepts the figure from the latter two sources as a rough, but probably sound estimate for today. So far as area is concerned, moreover, he is inclined to agree with the figure of 550,579 square miles offered for Chinese Turkestan by *The China Year Book, 1934* (H. G. W. Woodhead, editor, Shanghai, The North China Daily News & Herald, Ltd.), p. 2.

The China Year Book, 1934 gives 38,610 square miles as the area and 896 as the population per square mile of Kiangsu Province. In contrast, the population density of Sinkiang (on the basis of a 4,000,000 provincial total) would be slightly less than some eight persons per square mile. If one accepted figures of the *China Handbook 1937-1943*, the Sinkiang population density could even be calculated at a smaller amount, some six persons per square mile!

For other useful information on this general subject, cf. especially Council of International Affairs, *The Chinese Year Book 1938-39 Issue* (Commercial Press, Chungking), p. 121; Chiang Chün-chang, *Hsin-chiang Ching-ying Lun* (third edition, China, Cheng Chung Book Company, 1939), p. 51; and Owen Lattimore, "Chinese Turkestan or Sinkiang (Hsinchiang)," *The China Year Book, 1934*, pp. 80-81. The author wishes to remark at this point that he is indebted considerably to the last article for its concisely summarized facts regarding the land, people, and early history of Sinkiang.

000 32. For information on the terrain of Sinkiang and concerning the designations which Chinese have formerly used for the area, *vide* Chiang Chün-chang, *op. cit.*, pp. 2, 5, and 9; Owen Lattimore *High Tartary* (Little, Brown, and Company, Boston, 1930), pp. 34-35; Tu Chung-yüan, *op. cit.*, especially his "Outline Map of Sinkiang;" *vide* also V. K. Ting, Wong Wen-hao, and Tseng Shih-ying, *Chung-kuo Fen Sheng Hsin T'u* (Shen Pao, Shanghai, 1936), pp. 54-55.

33. Cf. Owen Lattimore, *Inner Asian Frontiers of China*, especially pp. 172-173; and *vide* Lieut.-Colonel P. T. Etherton, *In the Heart of Asia* (Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1926), pp. 57-59, 79-83, 105, 108, 109, 145, 196, and 245.

34. The iron bridge, witnessed by the author while he was in Lan-chou, 1939-1940, bears a sign reading: "1909 Telce & Schroeter Tientsin 1909 American Bridge Co., New York U.S.A. 1908 1907."

It has been the fashion for writers on this subject to refer to the Chinese characters for Sinkiang (*Hsin-chiang*) in English as "The New Dominion." *Vide*, for example, Peter Fleming, *News From Tartary: A Journey from Peking to Kashmir* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), p. 29, note 1. However, a literal translation of the characters involved can furnish material for lively academic debate. The character *hsin*, ordinarily translated as "new," is made up of the following component parts: *li* (a man standing erect over the earth), *mu* (a tree), and *chin* (an ax with a splinter underneath). The character *chiang*, ordinarily referred to in this case as "dominion," is made up of the following parts: *t'u* (earth), *kung* (a bow), and *chiang* (a character which in itself can be substituted for the *chiang* in question, and one which depicts two partitioned

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Sinkiang AI1

GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE SOCIETY

I. General Introduction

The Northwest of China, consisting of the four provinces: Shensi, Kansu, Chinghai, and Sinkiang, part of which is now called the Sinkiang-Uighur Autonomous Region, comprises an area of 1.3 million square miles, (almost a third of all China), in which thirty-six million people live. There are at least four different racial types (Turanides, Sinides, Mongoloides and Tangutides) and more than a dozen different ethnic groups: Eastern Turks or New Uighur (Chin. Wei-wu-erh), Chinese (chin. Han), Chinese Muslims (chin. Han-hui or Tung-kan-hui, Engl. Dungans), Kazakhs (chin. Ha-sa-k'o), Kirghiz (chin. Chi-erh-chi-ssu) Uzbeks (chin. Wu-tzu-pieh-k'o), Tatars (chin. T'a-t'a-erh), Tajiks (chin. T'a-chi-k'o), Western Mongols or Oirats (chin. Ölöt or simply Meng-ku), Sarigh-Uighurs (chin. Tung-hsiang-hui-hui), Shera Yögur (chin. Tu-jen), Monguors (chin. also Tu-jen), Salars (chin. Sa-la), Tibetans (chin. Hsi-fan), Manchu (chin. Man), Sibo (chin. Hsi-po) and Solons (chin. So-lun). The last three ethnic groups, the Manchus, Sibos, and Solons are persistently listed in Communist censuses, although it has been proved that they are non-existent as linguistic units, or as separate ethnic groups. Numerically, the Chinese constitute the overwhelming majority in the Northwest (about thirty million).

While the Turks of the Northwest (i.e. New Uighurs, Kazakhs, Kirghiz, Uzbeks, Tatars and Salars) are rather firm believers in Islam (Mohammedanism), the Western Mongols, Sarigh-Uighurs (the latter are Turks), Shera Yögur, and Tibetans are faithful Buddhists of the northern form, also called Lama Buddhism, and the Chinese believe in a variety of religious or philosophical systems: Confucianism, Taoism, Buddhism, and even Demonism and Animism.

The economic pattern of the Northwest as well displays an enormous variety; we find nomadic pastoralism among the Kazakhs, Kirghiz, Western Mongols, and Tibetans, intensive horticulture among the New Uighur of the oasis-belt of Sinkiang, agriculture by means of irrigation (kariz system. See chapter about agriculture) among Chinese (only fifteen percent of the North west agriculture is without any irrigation), sedentary Turks and Mongols, and a mixture of primitive agriculture and pastoralism among some Tibetan and Mongolian Tribes of Chinghai and Kansu. The Turkic and the Chinese Muslims are the bearers of the trade along the old "silk roads" of Sinkiang, Chinghai and Kansu. The urban centers of the Northwest are also centers of petty industry and handicraft. The newest

S
N A group of patrilineally
563 related families forms the basic economic (i.e., migrational)
621 unit in Mongol society. Pastures are distributed among such
S units. The structure of the society itself dictates a certain
N collectivistic working concept. Mongol social groupings are
[622] led by tribal chieftains, who are directly responsible to the
563 district Chinese official. Mongol society, unlike other North-
107 western societies, has not undergone great changes under
668 Communist influences. Their basic pattern of life has remained
the same as it was under the Manchu and Republican regimes.

S
563 The Oirats (or Western Mongols:
233 The Oirats of the Northwest are primarily pastoral nomads.
[434] Their chief source of income is cattle, horses, sheep and
[131] goats. Because they live in a desert-steppe area they move around in larger or smaller groups depending upon the available resources.

S
563 The designation for these small economic and migrational
62[illegible] units or camps is "xotn" which includes a group of nuclear
[594] families patrilineally related - tracing descent from a common
[613] ancestor in the third, fourth, or fifth generation.

[597] Membership in this group can be gained by adoption, by attachment of a daughter's husband in the case of a man with no sons and of poor unrelated families or poor related families on the paternal side. Although some poorer families remained apart from these "xotn" it usually is more worthwhile to add their few cattle, etc., to that of the larger group and render services in return for the benefits gained thereby.

S
[613] Among the Oirats the closer an individual's relationship
[554] to the ancestor, the greater prestige and status he enjoys in this group.

S
563 The headman or elder ("axalaci") dwells in a tent situated in
361 the front of the encampment facing south. The remainder of
[622] the group is arranged according to the age of the male members in a circle behind the dwelling of the elder. The dependent
S
[613] families are situated in the rear of the circle but still according
[554] to the closeness of their relation to the ancestor.

563 Wives of members of these extended families are also
621 affected by the social set-up; their position and status varies
593 directly with that of their husbands, although a wife's position as far as respect patterns go was never equal to her husband's.
562 A wife observes strict respect for her husband's kinsmen who possess, by reason of age and relationship, a higher position than that of her husband. Very often she will not even pronounce the names of any of these elder gentlemen out of respect for them. The status of the wife grows with that of her husband during his lifetime. When he dies, she can either remain living with his kinsmen, in which case she holds the same position socially that he had during his lifetime, or she can

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HISTORICAL SETTING

N 631 I. General History of Relations with China

Northwest China, once a major administrative region of Communist China, is an arbitrary political union of widely dissimilar geographical areas inhabited by a conglomeration of diverse ethnic groups. At the eastern end of this vast wedge-shaped region is Shensi, which has been an integral part of China Proper throughout history and is inhabited almost exclusively by Chinese. Although it is only one-seventeenth of the total area, this single province holds almost half of the population of the Northwest. Sian, the provincial seat of Shensi, has been in centuries past and still is today China's political and military base for the control of the Northwest and has been the center for the diffusion of Chinese culture to the Northwest in the past and of Communist ideology in the present.

N 635 [162] N [633] [177] [668]

S 635 [31] [6] [563]

At the western end of the Northwest region of China is the province of Sinkiang or Chinese Turkestan. Its territory occupies half the area of the Northwest but its population is only a seventh of the total. Three-quarters of the inhabitants are Uighurs, a people Turkic in speech and Moslem in religion. The rest is divided among thirteen nationalities.

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In the north is the now abolished province of Ninghsia, inhabited largely by Mongols. In the south is Chinghai (also known as Kokonor) with a heterogeneous population of Mongols, Chinese and Tibetans. The Gobi Desert, which pushes south to Ninghsia, and the highlands of Chinghai constricts the habitable area into an hourglass shape, forming a corridor connecting Shensi in the east and Sinkiang in the west. This is the province of Kansu.

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A. The Role of the Kansu Panhandle

All traffic between China Proper and Turkestan has been funnelled through the narrow confines of this corridor. The ancient Silk Road started from its terminus at Sian (known in the past as Ch'ang-an) and wound its way, via the Kansu Corridor, into Chinese Turkestan where it branched into the northern and southern routes to bypass the towering Tienshan Mountains. The conquering armies of Han, T'ang and Ch'ing had marched out through this narrow passageway to assert the political rule of China over the desert wastes and oasis towns of Turkestan. Hordes of nomads, lured by the lush plains and opulent cities of China, have poured through this funnel to raid and pillage and, when successful, to found militaristic kingdoms. This was the route worn deep by the trudging feet of camel caravans bearing the tea and silk and porcelain of China to bazaars in the Near East and even to the markets of Byzantium and Rome. In the train of these caravans travellers have come into China, from the Buddhist missionary, Kumarajiva,

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*175 to the Venetian merchant, Marco Polo.
487 During the centuries when China faced the land frontier of the
S Northwest and the Silk Road was the main channel of China's inter-
175 course with the outside world, the target of China's imperialistic
487 expansion, when strong, was the domination of the petty states of Central Asia. The principal strategic pass that must be held to prevent invading armies from pouring in and ravaging China, in periods of weakness and division, was Yü-men, the Jade Gate, in northwestern China.

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17 B. Recurring Cycles of Nomadic Eruptions

As the advance and recession of Chinese power in Turkestan reflected the vigor and the decline of Chinese dynasties,(a feature of Chinese history discussed in the historical section of the General Handbook), so were the outbursts and withdrawals of the nomads the manifestations of their activity and passivity. The juxtaposition and interaction of the Chinese scheme of advance and withdrawal with the nomadic scheme shaped the dynamics and course
S of history of Northwest China. Together with Inner Mongolia,
• (131) Sinkiang forms a broad semicircular belt, which marks the marginal zone between China and the steppes and is the amphitheater for the vast age-long struggle between the sedentary and nomadic peoples.

N 1. Earliest invasions

*175 The alternate thrust of the nomads into this marginal zone,
648 at times even penetrating into the heartland of China, and their retraction into the steppes, have been a recurring phenomenon
S in the history of Central Asia. With tidal regularity, the nomads
175 have surged forth when China was weak and divided, only to ebb
648 when China was strong and united. As far back as the eighth century B.C., when China was beginning to disintegrate into warring states, there were invasions of China by the north and northwestern peoples called Ti and Jung. In Central Asia there was the expansion of the Scythians. From the third to the first century B.C., the confederacy of nomads led by the Hsiung-nu or Huns were active in China's Northwest. During this same period Central Asia was overrun first by the Greeks of Alexander's army, then by the Yüeh-chih and, further east, by the Sakas and Wu-sun. The defense measures of the Ch'in dynasty and the military advance of the Chinese during the Han dynasty in the first century B.C. and the first century A.D., held the Huns in check and finally succeeded in splitting up the Hun confederation.

2. Turkic incursions

From the fourth to the seventh centuries, with China weak and divided, the border peoples from China's northern and northwestern frontiers breached China's defenses. First in dribbles and then in raging torrents they occupied the northwest and poured

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132 it is 37.9 degrees , and at Urumchi it is 39.4. Because of its topographical conditions, the range at Turfan is greater, amounting to 40.8 degrees Centigrade. At all the stations, the yearly range of temperature is above thirty degrees. As to daily difference, the temperature varies more than twenty degrees. This is particularly true in summer when the earth absorbs heat and loses heat more easily.

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132 Rainfall is meager throughout Northwest China. Generally, it is below 250millimeters. According to some data of the western stations of Kansu, Chang-yeh District has ninety-five millimeters; Chiu-ch'uan has eighty-one millimeters; Tun-huang has forty-six millimeters. The farther inland, the more obvious is the continentality and the less is the precipitation. Summer is usually the period of maximum precipitation. In Chang-yeh District the maximum precipitation is in July, August, and September. They have almost constantly seventy-four percent of the rainfall of the year; whereas the winter months, December, January, and February, have only five percent. The rainfall of the summer months in Chiu-ch'uan is approximately seventy-two percent of the year, but it drops to five percent in the winter months. The variations of the rainfall of Kansu Province are generally above forty
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[241] percent, an amount definitely insufficient for agricultural usages. Irrigation in Kansu depends mainly on melting snow water from Ch'i-lien-shan rather than rainfall.

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132 Sinkiang is located approximately in the center of Asia.
[131] Blocked by the huge mountains and gigantic desert, the moist air from the ocean can hardly move into the area so the atmosphere is dry, except in the northwestern section of the province where the topography is relatively open toward the west. When the western winds are strong, moist air is moved into the province. Rainfall is, therefore, heavier. According to the statistics, the mean precipitation is 229 millimeters at Urumchi; 280 millimeters at Ili; 274 millimeters at Chuguchak; and 149 millimeters at Altai. In southern Sinkiang all the stations are separated from the ocean by huge mountains and rainfall is light. For this reason, Kashgar receives only eighty-six millimeters precipitation a year; Kucha receives seventy-six millimeters; and Turfan receives twenty-
S
[161] nine millimeters. Charklik (Erh-chiang) has only 4.5 millimeters in a year. It has been reported that in the Han Dynasty there were a thousand families living in the district. In 1943, there were only three families with some eleven persons remaining. The meagerness of precipitation through the years and the encroachment of the desert are the major causes for the rapid decrease of the population in Charklik. In some

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135 C. Minerals of Secondary Importance.

Many other minerals, both metallic and non-metallic, have been discovered in the Northwest, particularly in Sinkiang. Among the metallic ones are antimony, zinc, tin, mercury, pyrite, etc. Among the non-metals are magnesite, graphite, sulfur, arsenic, nitrate, asbestos, alum, asphalt, ozocerite, marble, limestone for cement making, etc.

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316 Since mining operations have not yet begun in most cases, it is impossible to predict whether these will prove to be worthwhile, with the exception of magnesite and limestone for cement making.

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135 1. Magnesite and Cement making:

Large deposits of magnesite are found at Tzu-hu county (38.50 by 105.32) of former Ninghsia province, with a reserve

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339 estimated at 38,000,000 tons. A modern cement plant is being built in Kansu province. The cement plant will be the first of its kind in thisprovince, and it will be able to meet local demands for cement. Housing for the workers, an extension railway line and a long distance telephone linking up the site were completed at the end of 1954. (FBIS. No. 25, Feb. 4, 1955).

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316 2. Pyrite and Sulfur

Production of sulfur is reported in the vicinity of Khotan,

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135 Sinkiang. A pyrite deposit is also reported in the Tsai-ku area of Shensi province at the junction of the districts of P'u-cheng, Pai'shui, and Cheng-cheng (or about 35.03 by 109.33). The field is 3.5 miles square, extending on both sides of the Loho River, with veins one to two feet thick. Reserves were given as 4,000,000 tons with a sulfur content probably reaching fifty-three percent, making it the best in the world. (Ref. Industrial Monthly, June 1, 1944, Sian). This may be the same as the Han-chiao-ho field. As China turns to industrialization, the demand for sulfur and sulfuric acid will increase.

3. Asphalt and Ozocerite

In the region of Lake Ayar, large deposits of asphalt and ozocerite are found, but so far they have not been worked.

4. Graphite

Graphite is found at Mei-hsien (34.18 by 107.43) in Shensi province.

III. Population

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131 A. Introduction
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The Northwest Region covers the provinces of Shensi, Kansu (including Ninghsia), Chinghai, and the newly established Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region in the former Sinkiang Province. Sinkiang alone is larger in area than France, Germany, and

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Italy combined, but the population of the whole Northwest Region is only about thirty-five million.

Northwest China is an area of 1,232,159 square miles, one third the size of all China, with a population only 5.8 percent of the nation's total. It represents, however, a great complexity both geographically, culturally, and ethnically.

The region is characterized, even more than the nation as a whole, as a unity with diversity. Its entity is partially cultural with a predominant religion of Islam and a common historical as well as political background. While climatic conditions are relatively uniform, ranging from semi-arid to arid of the extreme temperate continental type, its physiographic features very considerably. In addition to the thickly peopled humid and mild Han-chung Basin in Southern Shensi, there are large low-lying rich fertile riverine plains along the Wei-ho, Huang-shui, and some parts of the main Yellow River, as around Lanchou of Kansu and near Yin-chuan (Ninghsia) plus the Ili valley of Sinkiang and numerous small oases scattered along the foot of the snow-capped high mountain ranges of Nan-shan or Chi-lien, Kunlun, and Tien-shan. They are thickly populated areas either in large stretches or isolated pockets. Next come the vast plateaus and deserts of Alashan, Khara Gobi, Takla Makan, and Northeastern Dzungaria forming an extension of the Great Gobi of the Mongolian plateau. Each of them is enormous, e.g., Takla Makan desert occupies half of the Tarim Basin (910,000 square kilimeters). They are practically uninhabited except for a few small oases scattered here and there. Next are the arid and semi-arid upland basins of Tsaidam and Koko Nor in the province of Chinghai and Southern Dzungaria of northern Sinkiang. The semi-arid steppes are occupied by pastoral nomads, while the ared portion is either inhospitable or very thinly populated. Last come the lofty mountains. Some of them are snow-capped with alpine pastures and forests like Tien-shan, Nan-shan and the Altai mountains. Some of them are barren and rugged like the Kunlun, Bayan Khara, and Altyn-tagh. The former provide natural bases for the development of transhumance and lumbering, while the latter precludes any permanent human settlement, except for a few high mountain passes which are occasionally traversed by traders and travelers, such as across the mountains of Kunlun, Bayan Khara and the Pamir.

As to historical and political relations with China, there are two distinct parts. Shensi and Kansu (excluding Ninghsia) are the sites of ancient Chinese culture - the archaeological finds of the "Oracle Bones" of the Shang Dynasty and the Yang-sha pottery in Shensi and Kansu date back at least to one to two millennia B.C. The Wei-ho valley plain is the cradle of Chinese civiliation.

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161 (Continued)

Major Regions	Population (1953 Census)
Southwest China	98,193,000
Northwest China	35,358,000

In the distribution of population densities, the Northwest is not comparable with other major regions except Tibet and the Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region as the following indicates:

Major Regions	Average Density per Sq. Mi.
Northwest	28.6
North	623.0
Northeast	214.0
Central and South	400.0
Southwest	222.0
Tibet & Shangtu Area	3.0
IMAR	17.0
Whole country	160.0

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162 Of the 35.3 million people of the Northwest, 28.8 million are found in the provinces of Shensi and Kansu, only 6.5 million in Chinghai and Sinkiang. This contrast between the true Han-Chinese occupied eastern part and the multi-minority peopled western portion is sufficient to portray the unevenness of the population distribution. It becomes even more obvious when N S 131 this distribution is expressed in terms of the size of the land occupied. Shensi and Kansu, including Ninghsia, have an area 161 of 313,801 square miles which gives an average density of ninety-one persons per square mile, while Chinghai and Sinkiang have an area of 1,010,000 square miles with a density of 6.5 N per square mile. The density of the eastern portion without 131 Ninghsia would be increased to 126 persons per square mile, 161 for Ninghsia has at most 800,000 people in an area of about 91,500 square miles. However, the larger density of Shensi and Kansu without Ninghsia is still below the average of the country.

N Broadly speaking, apart from the general uneven distribution 161 between the eastern and western parts of the region, their 241 distribution displays a special pattern. To the southeast of Nan-shan and Alashan mountain ranges and within the mid-drainage of the Yellow River and the Han-chung Basin, people are concentrated in the fertile valley plains where irrigation is possible, and also in the terrace dry lands of the Liu-pan hills where the annual rainfall is generally below fifteen but above ten inches which, though hardly adequate, is sufficient for growing millet, kaoliang, and even some spring wheat. Population N is spread out more evenly in large expanses such as the Han- 161 chung Basin, Wei-ho valley plain, and around Lanchou, a 133 confluent basin where the Tatung, Huang-shui and T'ao-ho converge on the Yellow River, or in long stretches as in southeast Ninghsia between the Alashan Range and the Yellow River course.

642 668 177 it was announced that altogether 1,000 officials from the same offices (the majority of them Party and Youth Corps members of whom one tenth are higher officials), will be transferred to Sinkiang to serve in the Regional County and Ch'ü offices and in the Economic Projects. (People's Daily, August 21, 1955).

The politico-economical development of Sinkiang follows the same pattern as that of the interior of China. All the detailed facts of using Chinese in party meetings, introducing a new currency in place of Sinkiang currency, etc., show that Autonomous Sinkiang is an integral part of China. The sufferers in the whole process are the aboriginal inhabitants of Sinkiang for they are expected to make the greatest sacrifices, greater even than those of the population of the rest of China, for the economic and military strengthening of the Communist world.

668 631 179 162 At the beginning of the new regime in 1949, Sinkiang was called (as it had been under the Nationalist Government) a province - divided into ten special districts and these were subdivided into seventy-nine counties. In 1954, Five Autonomous "Chou" were established. Four of them were established in July, 1954. They contain three counties each, while the former special Districts contained, on an average, ten counties each. The population of three of these Autonomous "Chou" is 57,000 , 98,000 and 135,000. Three of the Autonomous "Chou" were Mongolian and the other two were Moslem. In November, 1954, the largest Autonomous "Chou" was established in the Ili Valley, called the Ili Kazakh Autonomous Area with a population of 70,000 (P.D. December 6, 1954, or NCNA December 2, 1954).

On September 20, 1955, it was stated that the Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region was to replace "Sinkiang Province." It was also announced that the establishment of the smaller Autonomous "Chou" within Sinkiang had now been concluded with the establishment of five Autonomous Chou and six Autonomous Counties (Kuang-ming jih-pao, September 14, 1955).

In fact, however, the population in these Autonomous Chou and Autonomous Counties does not exceed 500,000, which is less than one tenth of the total population of Sinkiang which is officially set at 4,780,000 people. (Kuang-ming jih-pao, September 15, 1955). Thus the extension of autonomous rule is limited - a sign that the erection of the Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Area itself has only a token significance in spite of the fact that the Uighurs number 3.6 million constituting seventy to eighty percent of the total population of the province.

631 131 668 177 The Sinkiang Uighur Autonomous Region is not an easily accessible area. In the past, its geographical isolation has been aggravated by the seclusion policy of the Communist regime for

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631 political and military reasons. After the last British Consulate
131 of Kashgar was closed, the curtain has become even more
668 impenetrable there than in any other part of China. Not even
172 Chinese are allowed to travel into Sinkiang without special
[648] permits.

N F. Northwest As An Outlet for Chinese Overpopulation
167 The Northwest Region has been long regarded by the Chinese
185 as one of the major outlet areas for China's overpopulation. Once the plans to conserve water and soil are completed - especially along the Yellow River in Shensi and Kansu - arable land will be considerably extended. But water and soil conservancy will involve a lot of problems before the land is actually made productive - not to mention that its sustaining capacity is limited. Therefore the Northwest as an outlet for China's overpopulation is tentative and should only be regarded as a
N partial and temporary solution.
311 1. Extension of Arable Land by Irrigation and Soil Conservancy
185 According to plan the irrigated area in the mid-Yellow River Basin will grow from 12,717,000 acres at present to some 19,105,000 acres. Agricultural output in the irrigated area will more than double. Annual grain output will increase by 6,741,000 long tons and cotton by 590,000 long gons. The loess regions with their barren mountains and desolate gullies covering 143,000 square miles, will become a land of plenty. Most of the land for irrigation development under the project will be in the provinces of Shensi and Kansu. ("China's Sorrow" Will Be No More - The Taming and Exploiting of the Yellow River, by Li Jui, People's China, August 6, 1955, p. 9-15).

S The area of arable land in Sinkiang has also been extended,
311 but it is not easy to ascertain by how much or by what means.
185 In 1953 it had reached twenty million mou, 4,100,000 more than in 1949 (PD. August 28, 1955); in 1954 more than 5,000,000 mou above 1949, i.e. a total of 21 million mou (KM. September 15, 1955; by 1955 22 million mou (PD. October 31, 1955).

According to the above figures, the increase between 1949 and 1955 would be six million mou. But there appear some discrepancies with other information. The difficulty is that the 1950 data for the extension of arable land in Sinkiang was not 16 million but 18.195 million mou (Newspaper Reading Handbook, Hankow, p. 25, 1950). Thus if the present data are reliable, the 1949-55 increase would be three million mou instead of six million, of which 1,100,000 mou are due to the labor of the Army Agrarian Production Troops.

S According to official reports, in 1953, 1.6 million tons of
433 food stuffs were produced in Sinkiang (PD. August 28, 1955). About the production in 1954, it is known that there was an

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TABLE
III. Distribution of Oil Wells in Sinkiang.

Location	Year Drilled	Depth, meters	Past Production	Lat. & Long.
Ssu-cha-kou, k5 km W of Urumchi	1934	shallow	small	43, 51 x 87.16
Ching-shih-hsia (Kaiavusun) or Hsi-ho) 95 km SE of Tarbagatai	Not available	seepages	fair	46.04 x 83.34
Tu-shan-tzu, 25 km SE of Wu-su	1934-42	2,275	From few hundred bbls (1942) to 1000 bbls in 1946; now 10-30 tons a day.	44.18 x 84.54
Hung-tung-shan (Kolayalun)	Not available	seepages	50 tons a day from 6 uncapped wells (1944)	42.06 x 82.47
Nan-shan, 40 km. W of Shu-fu, to the W of Kashgar	Not Available	seepages	small	29.32 x 75.31
Taklak, along Kunalik Range 50 km NE of Wen-su	Not Available	seepages	small	41.40 x 80.12
Hung-kou and An-chiu, SE of Wu-kia (Urukhe-kiati)	Not Available	seepages	2-3 gal/day(1949)	38.04 x 74.50

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TABLE VII. Chief Copper Ore Deposits in Sinkiang*

Locale	Deposits	Comment
Sui-ting (Ili)	Wu-tsu-tao shan	
I-ning	Ha-erh-han-tu Shan	
K'ang-shan	unnamed	
Karashar	Ku-erh-tai shan	
Kashgar	Wu-lan-wu-su river	20% pure copper
	Su-hun-shan	40% pure copper
Kucha	New copper works	
	Old copper works	
	Su-pa-shih works	
Pai-cheng	Ho-se-erh works	
	Ko-ta works	
	Kung-po works	
	Upper works	
	Lower works	
Ta-pan-cheng	San-chia shan	
Tihua	Chai-o-pao	

*Noris, Martin R.: Gateway to Asia, Chap. IX, p. 117.

TABLE VIII. Distribution of Copper Deposits of Northwest China

Province	Location of Deposit	Content	Remarks	Lat. & Long.
Shensi	Yu-feng-chia(Lo-nan)	10% Cu	Malachite 3,780 tons (metal	
Chinghai	Ta-hsia (Lo-tu Hsien)	5.3% Cu	worth investi-	36.33 x 102.16
	Wei-chang-kou(Hsün-hua)	45% Cu	gating	35.38 x 102.35
Sinkiang	Gorban Bogdo (Tihua)		" "	43.42 x 88.18
	Jorga (Pai-cheng)		" "	
Wen-su, Turfan, Aksu, Yenchi (for the rest see previous table.)				

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TABLE IX. The Best Known Gold Fields of Sinkiang*

Locale	Field	Comment
Altai	Tung-kou Hsi-kou Chien-kou Hou-kou Chung-kou Ha-hsiung-kou Pan-tang-kou	2 1/2 lb. nuggets mined; highest quality
Barkol (Chensi)	Hsiao-liu-kou	
Cherchen (Chieh-Mo)	unnamed	
Chi-tai (Ku Cheng Tzu)	unnamed	
Sui-ting (Ili)	Chio-li-Ko R.	
Keriya (Yutien)	A-ha-ta-Ko Shan Chia-pa-shan Yu-mo-chiang Shan	
Sui-tung	unnamed	
Ta-cheng (Chuguchak)	Ha-tu-shan	placer, between T'a-erh-ta-mu-tu and Su-erh-tu rivers
Tihwa (Urumchi)	unnamed	

* Noris, Martin R.: Gateway to Asia, Chap. IX, pp. 114-17.

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TABLE X. (Continued)

Province	Field of Deposit	Lat. & Long.	1942 production	Total	1943 prod.	Total
Kansu (Continued)						
	Pei-wen (Lake)	38.50x101.14	130		104	
	Liu-chia-wan(Earth)		100		51	
	Pa-pan		45		19	
				12,335		14,898
Chinghai	Cha-chia (Lake)	36.48x 99.23	1,700		2,427	
	She-an-tang(Earth)	36.23x102.53	25		28	
				1,725		2,455
	GRAND TOTAL			91,165		69,331

TABLE XI. Distribution of Gypsum Deposits of Northwest China by Province

Province	Field of Deposit	Location
Shensi	Lin-tung	34.24x109.13
Chinghai	Hsining	36.37x101.46
Kansu	Ha-chia-tsun, Yung-teng	36.37x103.33
Sinkiang	Wen-su	41.15x79.55
	Kuche	41.43x82.54
	Pai-cheng	41.46x81.52

TABLE XII. Population Increase of the Various Regions

Major Regions	No. Places Surveyed	No. Farm Families invest'd.	Birth Rate*	Death Rate*	Natural Increase
Northwest	14	5,648	35.0	22.0	11.5
North China	26	10,816	40.2	26.6	13.6
Lower Yangtze	21	9,849	38.5	28.3	10.1
Southwest	20	5,343	46.2	35.6	10.6
Southeast	12	4,540	37.7	31.2	6.5
	93	36,196	39.3	28.2	11.1

*per 1,000

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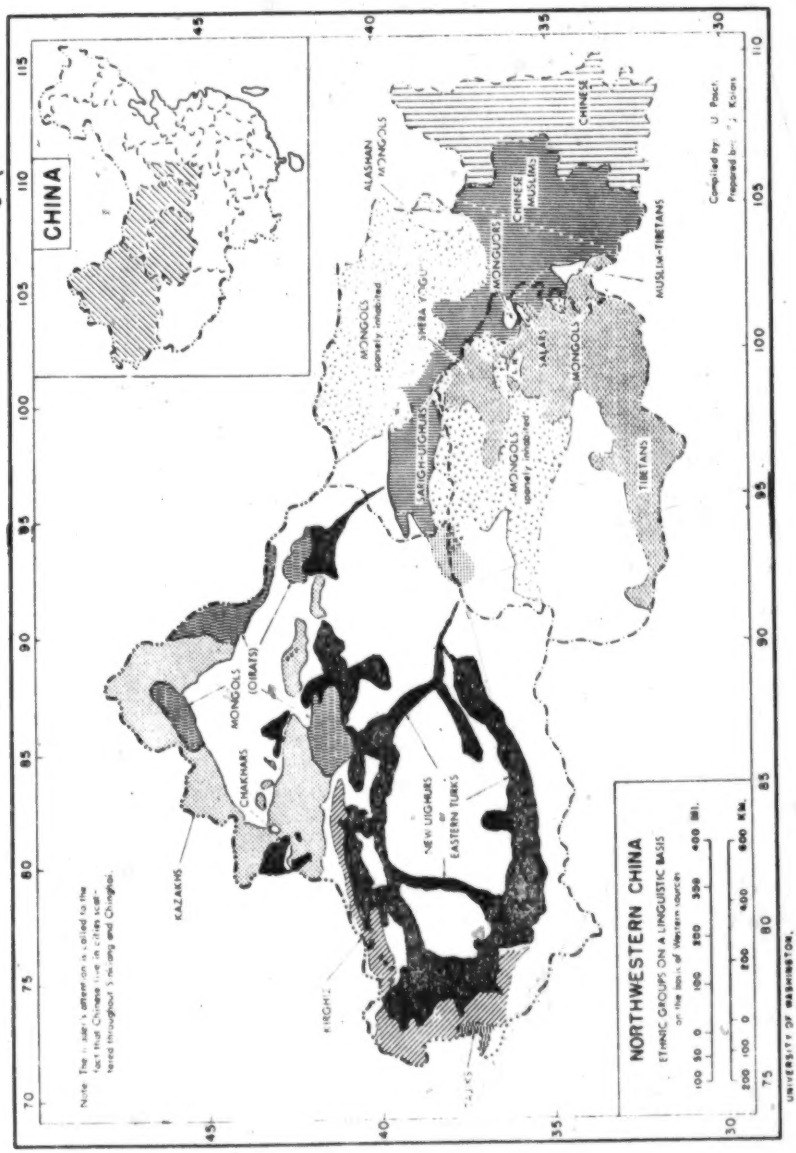

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5) Urianghai 4,000 people

4. The Indo-Europeans

The remainder are Indo-Europeans and are in two groups:

1) Russians about 14-15,000 people
2) Tajiks about 9,000 " (also called Sarikolis or simply Iranians)

5. The Manchus

The Manchus, with the subgroups Solons and Sibos, are a recently extinct racial group. They merged with neighbouring Turks or Chinese or were absorbed by them. They forgot their own language about 40 or 50 years ago. The main group, consisting of about 10,000 persons, used to live in the Ili valley and the town of Ili. The present regime still constantly lists these three groups.

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6. Summary of population

Number	Group	No. of people in thousands	Areas in which they live
1	New Uighur	3,000	In the area of Kashgar, Yarkend, Khotan, Cherchen, Aksu, Kucha, Kuldja, Turfan, Barkul, Hami, Chuguchak.
2	Kazakhs	300	Along the Tekes River and Kunger River, in the area of Chuguchak, on the border of Sinkiang, and Kazakhstan, on the border of Outer Mongolia and Sinkiang.
3	Kirghiz	70	On the border of Sinkiang and Kirghizistan, between the area of Tekes River, the mountains north of Aksu, Uch-Turfan, Yanigshahar, Tashkurgan.
4	Taranchi	43	In the Ili region.
5	Uzbeks	8	Mostly living in cities, especially in Kashgar, Yarkend, Kuldja and Chuguchak.
6	Tatars	5	Exclusively living in the cities of Yuldus, Urumchi, Kuldja and Chuguchak.

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7	Chinese	210	scattered all over Sinkiang, the bulk being in the triangle of Charchlike, Hami and Kuldja
8	Dungans	100	the same as No. 7
9	Olots	15	on the Tekes River and Kashr.
10	Torguts	18	in the Tien-Shan between Kuldja and Karashar, on the tributaries of the Black Irtysh
11	Khoshuts	21	in the Altai in the area of Chuguchak and along the Yuldus River
12	Chakhar	8	in the Borokhoro mountains
13	Urianghai	4	in the Altai, in the area of Chuguchak
14	Russians	15 - 16	live in the cities only, mainly in Kashgar, Yarkend, Urumchi, Chuguchak, Kuldja, Guma, Khotan, Keriya and Qumul
15	Tajiks	9	the main bulk lives at the Sinkiang-Afghanistan border, especially in the towns of Ktash Qurghan and Yanighissar

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361

B. The Ethnic Groups of Kansu

The main racial group in the province of Kansu is the Chinese who number more than twelve million. Other ethnic groups are the Mongours (Mongols), the Turks (Salars and Sarigh-Uighurs), and finally the Tibetans.

Number	Group	Number of people in thousands	Areas in which they live
1	Chinese	10,500	everywhere within the province

563 summer comes, they take their cattle way up on the pastures of
361 the mountains. The winter forces them to descend and to spend
233 some months in the more protected valleys.

4. Religion

563 The Kirghiz are Moslems of the Sunna Sect. Their script is
771 Arabic and is known only by noblemen or clergy. The only Moslem
[212] rule which is strictly observed is that of abstaining from eating
[262] pork.

5. Changes under Chinese Communist rule

563 In order to fight illiteracy the new Chinese Communist Govern-
871 ment erected schools for the Turks of Sinkiang in almost all villages,
268 towns and cities. The Chinese claim also that the process of making
177 them sedentary has brought remarkable progress to the Kirghiz.

E. The Uzbeks

563 1. Physical characteristics

[369] Only a few thousand Uzbeks live in Sinkiang, and they live ex-
clusively in the cities. Outwardly they are utterly different from
[142] the Kirghiz and the Kazakhs, since they represent the alpine,
europide and Iranian type of Turk. They show long, narrow faces,
[141] heavy hair growth, brown, sometimes blue, eyes, no Mongolian
fold, sharp prominent noses, white skin, body height 1700 to
1840 mm. Mongoloid features rarely can be found. In most cases
Uzbek are the same physical type as the peasants of the European
Alps.

2. Economic activities

[463] The Uzbeks live as merchants, inn-owners, and craftsmen in
[369] Sinkiang cities. They are more educated than any other Turkish
[891] tribe of Central Asia, since they have absorted a great deal of
Persian culture. Many Uzbeks speak Persian as a second language,
[191] and Chinese as a third (like the Eastern Turks), while Kirghiz and
Kazakhs know only their mother tongue.

3. Religion

[771] The Uzbeks are Moslems of the Sunna sect. Kirghiz and Kazakhs
call the Uzbeks Sart, which simply means Turks who broke away
from their nomadic way of life and became merchants.

4. Origin and linguistic affiliation

[101] The Uzbeks, living in Sinkiang came from Soviet Uzbekistan.
They received their name from Ozbek, a fourteenth century Khan
of the Golden Horde.

[197] The Uzbek language can be considered as the direct descendant
of the Chagatai written language. Even today the difference between
written Uzbek and the Chagatai language is very small.

F. The Salars

1. Physical characteristics

[131] The Salars live in Hsun-hua-t'ing on the right bank of the

563 Huang-ho and in the surrounding villages. They are also found on
[131] one section of the road from Hsi-ning to Ho-chou. They differ considerably from the average type of Chinese Moslems. They
[142] are tall and lank. They have large and not flat noses, black and level eyes, cheekbones not prominent, long face, thick eyebrows, full black beard, retreating forehead, flattened occiput, brown but never yellow skin. Thus they are similar to the Turks of Chinese Turkestan.

2. Language and religion

[197] The most remarkable characteristic is their language which
[771] might be called a corrupt Turkish. In religion they are strict
[203] Hanafis and show great respect to their clergy. However, for the most part they are rather given to the drinking of spirits. Even
[212] the lowest classes sometimes are acquainted with the Arabic alpha-
[175] bet. They are said to have received their present form of religion from a reformer named Maming-hsin (Muhammad Amin) who taught about 1750.

3. Social organization

[173] The Salars are believed to have settled in their present habi-
[614] tat during the Yuan or Ming dynasty. They claim to have migrated from the Samarkand area. According to Schramm, who quotes
[197] General Ma Fu-hsiang, the Salars are subdivided into the "inner five clans" and into the "outer eight clans" (Chinese: kung). The latter lost their original Turkic language and now speak Tibetan.

[614] The Salars are said to preserve clan traditions very well and they do not marry anyone who does not belong to one of the Salar
[771] clans. They also have a reputation for being very fanatical Moslems, and have participated in all the Moslem uprisings of the 17th, 18th, 19th and 20th centuries.

G. The Sarigh Uighur (Chinese: Huang-fan)

[175] When Mannerheim visited the Sarigh Uighur in 1907, there were
[361] only 100 families to be found. This small tribe lives in three villages on the northern slopes of the Nanshan Mountains, in the area
[178] of Tun-huang, Su-chou and Kan-chou. They have preserved their
[212] tribal name and their Buddhist religion but they gave up their Uighur
[177] script during the eighteenth century and adopted the Tibetan script.

1. Physical characteristics

563 Mannerheim describes them as generally having excessively
142 prominent cheek bones. But he also saw several people with oval shaped faces and not strikingly prominent cheekbones. However, in general the type of face is short and somewhat broad. Some of the women have thick noses. The mouth shows neither thin nor thick lips. The eyes are small and the distance between them is also normal. (Mannerheim obviously employs European standards when he talks about "normal" or "average.") The corners of the eyes were open and there was no inner epicanthic fold. Their hair

N
*563 saw tremendous uprisings. But the Chinese shared in this violence.
795 When they defeated the Moslems, it was their custom to massacre
186 even women and children. (see section on Attitudes and Reactions)

b. Turks

The Chinese Moslems are on good terms with the Turks, and are reported to have feelings of kinship with them. Generally, this has been true even though the uprising of the 1930's ended in skirmishes between Chinese Moslems and the Turks.

N
*563 B. History of Islam in Kansu
795 There are no exact data on the introduction of Islam into
174 Northwest China, but it is believed that the major conversion to
799 the religion of Islam took place during or after the Yüan dynasty (1260-1306). It is unlikely that the first conversion appeared as early as the end of the Tang dynasty (618-906). Richard Wilhelm states, and it is true, that the first Moslem missionaries came to China at the end of the seventh century (Richard Wilhelm, Geschichte der chinesischen Kulture, München, 1928, 238 ff). Islam came to
N China by two routes, through Turkestan and then from Canton.
*563 The first Moslem revolt took place in Kansu as early as 1648.
795 Two hundred years later Yaqub Beg (1865-1877) ruled the newly-
*175 established Islamic empire from Kashgar. Russia, England, and Turkey officially recognized him. Yaqub Beg had an army of 50,000 men.
N The Moslems of Kansu tried to establish another Islamic empire
[648] (1861-1874). They conquered the western part of Mongolia, but the T'ung-chih emperor (1861-1875) defeated them completely. Another uprising in 1895 was equally unsuccessful.
N When the Communists took over Northwest China in 1949-1950,
*[668] they granted the Chinese Moslems the rights of religious freedom
N and autonomy. (see section on Constitutional System)
*563 The communities of Chinese Moslems adopted the classical
795 Arabian educational system, i.e., each mosque has so-called
891 medresse (schools) connected with it, where boys are taught to
N read the Koran, etc. This is one reason why illiteracy is so
[212] seldom found among Chinese Moslems.

VI. The Indo-Europeans of the Northwest

S
563 A. The Tajiks or Iranians or Sarikolis

1. General characteristics

S In the southwestern part of Sinkiang there lives a small Iran-
• [131] ian tribe called Tajiks, Iranians or Sarikolis, who are farmers,
[181] merchants and traders. They have a reputation for being very
[199] intelligent. They speak an Iranian dialect which is very closely
[191] related to Persian. The Tajiks very often speak Turkish as a second language, and the merchants even speak Chinese.

563 or Oirat. The Kalmucks proper are , or rather were, only a
[101] group of the Oirats (Western Mongols). As a people they have
[619] ceased to exist. The Western Mongols are divided into the
Torgut, Khoshut, Ölot and Dörbet (also called Dzungar) tribes.
175 As the pressure of the Chinese government became too strong
563 in the early 17th century some Khoshuts migrated into the Kokonor area. The Torguts moved into the steppes (1618) between the Urals and the Volga and submitted to the Russians. In 1673 the Dorbets, and in 1675 the Khoshuts, who had not migrated to the Kokonor area, followed their lead. However by 1771 Russian domination had become so oppressive that the Oirats decided on a return migration. Only a small part of the 400,000 people and their animals that wandered back arrived in their new home, which was now called Dzungaria (Mongolian: zŏůn gar "right
• [131] wing"). One group settled in the eastern part of Tien-shan, another small group at the southern edges of the Gobi, at the Kokonor and another in the Chinese province, Kansu.

19 Linguistically speaking, the following changes have occurred:

1) The Kalmuck language has contracted the groups *aɣu, *egů, etc. to long vowels:

Common Mongolian	Mongolian	Kalmuck
*caɣaɣan "white	čaɣan	tsaɣān
*qaǰaɣar "bridle	qaǰaɣar	ɣazār
*qaβalɣa "gate"	qaɣalɣa	χālɣ•
*čiɣiraɣ < *tiɣiraɣ "massive"	čigiraɣ	tšīrəG "solid"
*daɣuda- "to call"	daɣuda-	dūn "voice"
*toɣarï- "to turn"	toɣori-	tōr- "to go around"

2) I-breaking has occurred:

Mongolian	Kalmuck
biraɣu "calf"	bŭrū
miqan "meat"	maχn̥
sira "yellow"	šar•
milaɣa "lash"	malā

3) I-breaking did not occur in some instances; rather *i has assimilated the vowel in the following syllable:

Mongolian: ǰida "spear" Kalmuck: dǯid• < *ǰide

4) The Common Mongolian affricatives *č and *ǰ became in Kalmuck *ts and *z respectively. Only before *i did they remain as *tš and *dž:

Mongolian	Kalmuck
čaɣan "white"	tsaɣān
časun "snow"	tsasn̥
čisun "blood"	tsusn̥
ǰekegůn "cold"	zekůn
ǰelkei "thief"	zelkē

/The Kirghiz/

000 before his father-in-law, it must be as a stranger. At this
563 stage, if the bride has proved to be unfaithful, the boy's father
586 may demand the bride price back and break off the marriage.

563 When the tent is finished, the bridegroom takes it and his
591 bride to his own home. If, after one year, the bride finds her
586 married life unsatisfactory, her father may return the bride price to her husband and the couple is divorced.

4. Work and leisure

563 General work around the tent is done entirely by women. The
462 women are strong, healthy, and energetic workers. They not
181 only do the housework, but they also milk the yaks, sheep, cows and goats, weave rugs, make rope and build and pitch the tents. Men, though strong and able to endure great hardships, incline
[517] toward indolence. They like to play the guitar far into the night.
[534] Nevertheless, they also have work to do. They cultivate the barley fields and look after the safety of the flocks and herds on the steep mountainsides.

563 The Kirghiz are sports-minded. Their most common game is
526 baiga, in which the carcass of a sheep or goat is the object of contention. Forty or fifty contestants, mounted on strong horses, strive for possession of the carcass. It is every man for himself. One man dashes forward with the carcass and the others pursue him, trying to tear it away from him. If he is unhorsed, by fair means or foul, he must yield up the trophy. A fast, furious, dangerous game, the Kirghiz love it. In it they display their remarkable horsemanship.

563 The Kirghiz love music and dancing. Only the men dance. The
535 music is provided by a dulcimer, a native banjo and a drum, and
534 much form and ceremony are involved in the dance.

D. The New Uighurs

563 1. The people

The New Uighurs are also called the Eastern Turks. They
[162] comprise about seventy per cent of the population in the southern
[131] part of Sinkiang Province, and some live north of the Tienshan Mountains wherever the soil is fit for agriculture. They are a farming people.

563 The New Uighurs are noted for their gentle character, their
181 honesty, hospitality and complaisance. Criminal offenses among them are very rare; they look upon such crimes as murder,
[674] arson and robbery with a sort of horror. Their houses are never
[342] locked, and their grain is stored in outside repositories.

[251] They are a people who love to make music. Their most com-
[534] mon instruments are the dotou, a two-stringed guitar, a six-stringed mandolin and the tambourine. Boys and young men sing
563 wherever they go, and there are singing beggars and wandering
533 minstrels. The people have love songs, ballads, comic ditties,

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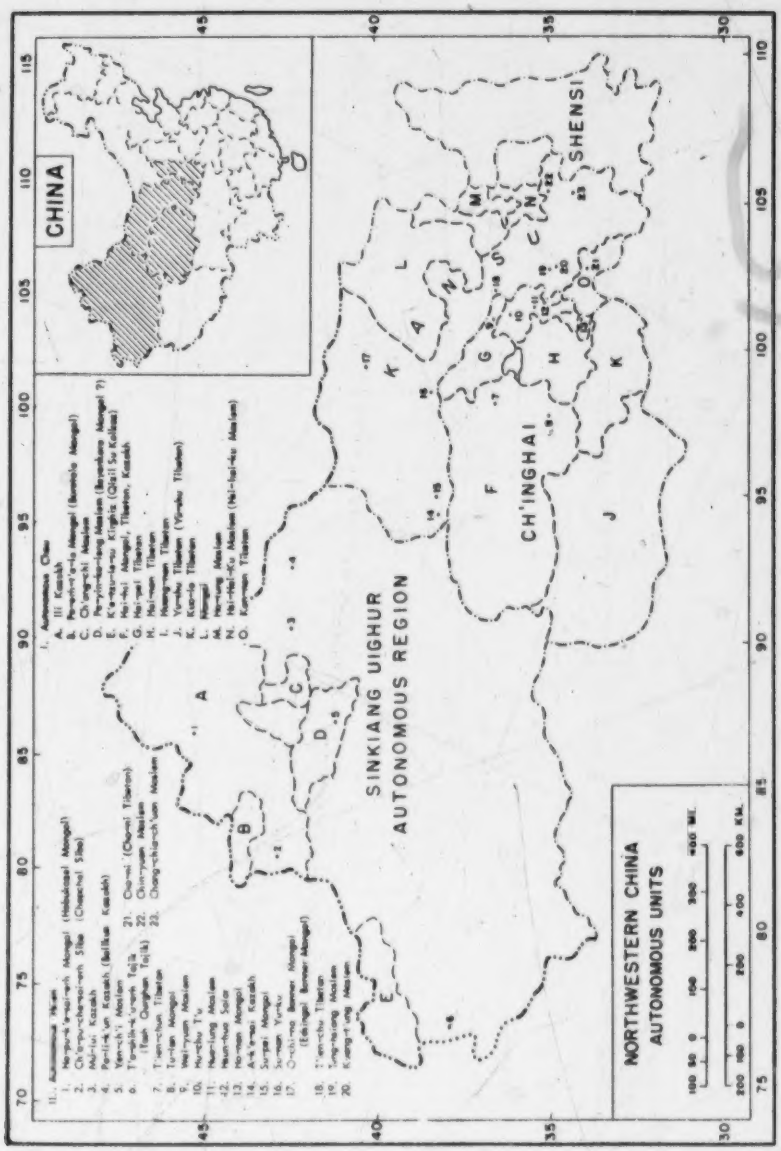

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AGRICULTURE AND LIVESTOCK

I. The Pre-Communist Period

A. Introduction

Since the Chinese Communist Party came to power, its interest in the Northwest as an area for economic development, has increased. The Communists feel that this vast region of 1,232,074 square miles, which is roughly one-third of the total area of China (3,657,765 square miles), offers unlimited opportunities for economic development. They claim that vast mineral deposits exist, that agriculture can be greatly expanded, and that the Northwest might serve as an outlet for some of the heavily populated sections of China Proper. Of China's total population of 582,605,000 million people, only 35,360,000 reside in the Northwest (Shensi: 15,881,000; Kansu and Ninghsia: 12,928,000; Chinghai: 1,677,000; and Sinkiang: 6,874,000). These figures are from the 1953 census report.

Since 1949, the Communists have begun to develop this area as rapidly as their limited capital and technological resources permit. Though the development of agriculture is only one aspect of their program, it is the foundation on which Communist planning in the Northwest rests.

B. Sinkiang

1. The geographical setting

Sinkiang is enclosed on the north, south, and west by mighty mountain masses and on the eastern side by wide stretches of barren plateau and is bisected by the lofty Tienshan, or Heavenly Mountains, which rise to heights of 23,000 feet and extend across the province from west to east, dividing the region into two unequal parts. The southern area, two-thirds of the whole, is the Tarim Basin, the land of oases and deserts. The northern part is Dsungaria, traditionally the land of the nomads. The total area of the province is about 600,000 square miles, or twice the size of Texas.

In the Tarim Basin, named from the east flowing river of the same name, is one of the world's driest deserts, the Takla Makan, which at its lowest point is actually below sea level. Vegetation is almost non-existent, so that nomadism is impossible except on a few alluvial fans where water lies near enough to the surface to support grass. The average rainfall is less than four inches a year. Water comes from the mountains which fringe the desert on the north, west and south. From the melting upland snows and glaciers, rivers cut their way down to the central oval desert. Where each river leaves the foothills, men dig canals to spread the water out in a fan, forming an oasis, so that the edige of the desert along the foot of the mountains is dotted by a series of oases.

000 oases. A trade road, looping around the desert, links the oases
133 like beads on a string, forming a U with the open end toward the
491 east.

Dsungaria is in northern Sinkiang, between the Tienshan and
• 131 the Altai mountains which mark the frontier between Sinkiang and
132 Western Mongolia. Precipitation here is slightly higher, and
137 steppe vegetation makes pastoralism possible. Northern Dsungaria
233 was the avenue of migration followed by the Mongols in their west-
[487] ward conquests.

2. Pastoral nomadism

233 In 1943, there were 11,720,000 sheep and goats in Sinkiang, 1,550,000 cattle, 870,000 horses, and 90,000 camels, totalling 14,230,000. In 1947 the province reported 12,266,000 sheep and goats, 1,659,000 cattle, 1,027,000 horses, and 85,000 camels, a total of 15,037,000. The total has remained somewhat constant over a period of time, probably due to the fact that pasture land is poor and care of the herds inadequate. Most of the livestock are in Dsungaria, pastured in the steppe land by nomad Kazakhs or Mongols. There are many variations to the techniques of herding animals since cattle, horses, and camels each prosper best on different kinds of pasture. The problem is to devise the best combinations of animals to be maintained and to select the appropriate pasture, decide how long to remain on a pasture, when to move, and how.

3. Oasis agriculture

241 There are two kinds of oases in Sinkiang: those in the south,
312 which are sharply isolated from each other by desert stretches and the oases of the north, which have fringes of land in which rainfall farming prevails. When irrigation was introduced, it seems to have been practiced first on the lower courses of the rivers, where the soil was soft and the engineering problems required only the digging of simple ditches from the banks of the streams. In the course of time, as knowledge of engineering developed, the tendency was for the oasis to move upstream toward the boulder slopes at the edge of the foothills, but not back into the gorges where the problems were far too great.

Oasis engineering is extremely simple. The basic pattern is a main canal from the river, branching into smaller canals which branch in turn into ditches which deliver water to the fields, all arranged so that water flows by gravity from level to level, without the pumping or bailing devices which are widely used in China and in Sovict Turkestan to lift water from lower to higher levels.

In volume of discharge, the rivers of the Tarim system are
[133] far behind the two great rivers of Soviet Inner Asia, the Syr Darya and the Amu Darya. The total discharge of all streams in Sinkiang is about 3400 cubic meters per second, of which about seventy per cent is in the Tarim Basin. In irrigation engineering

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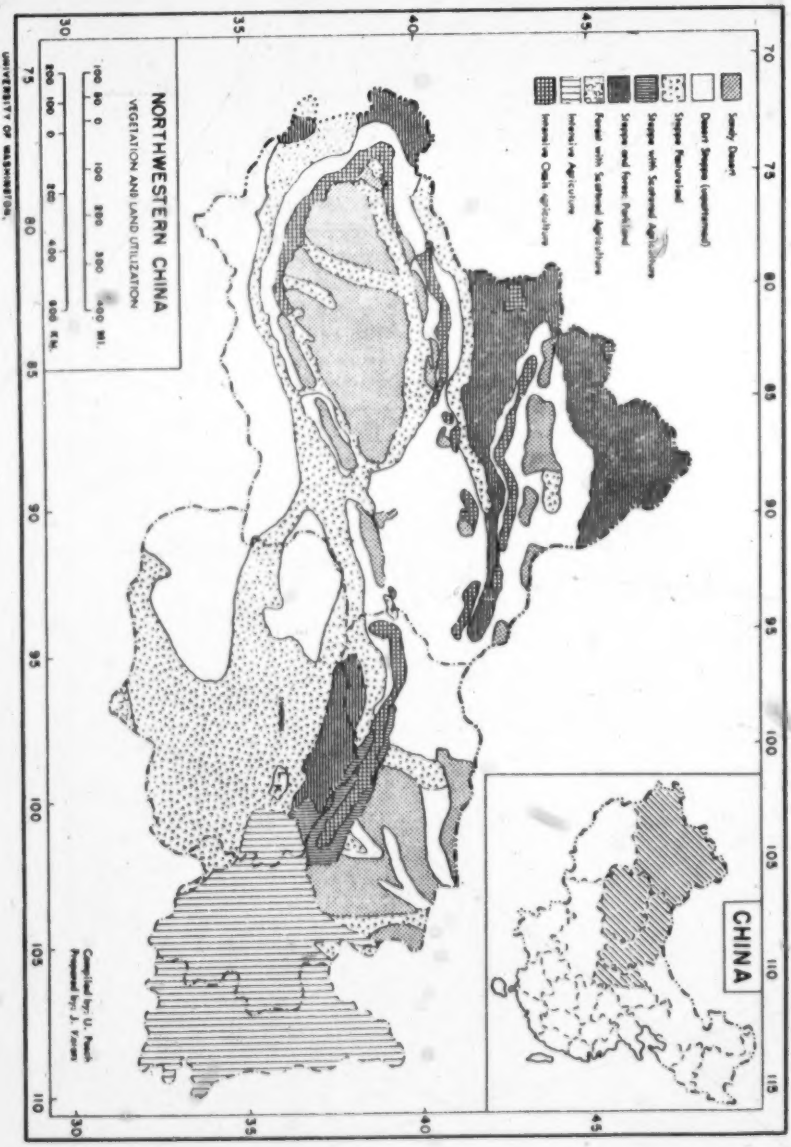

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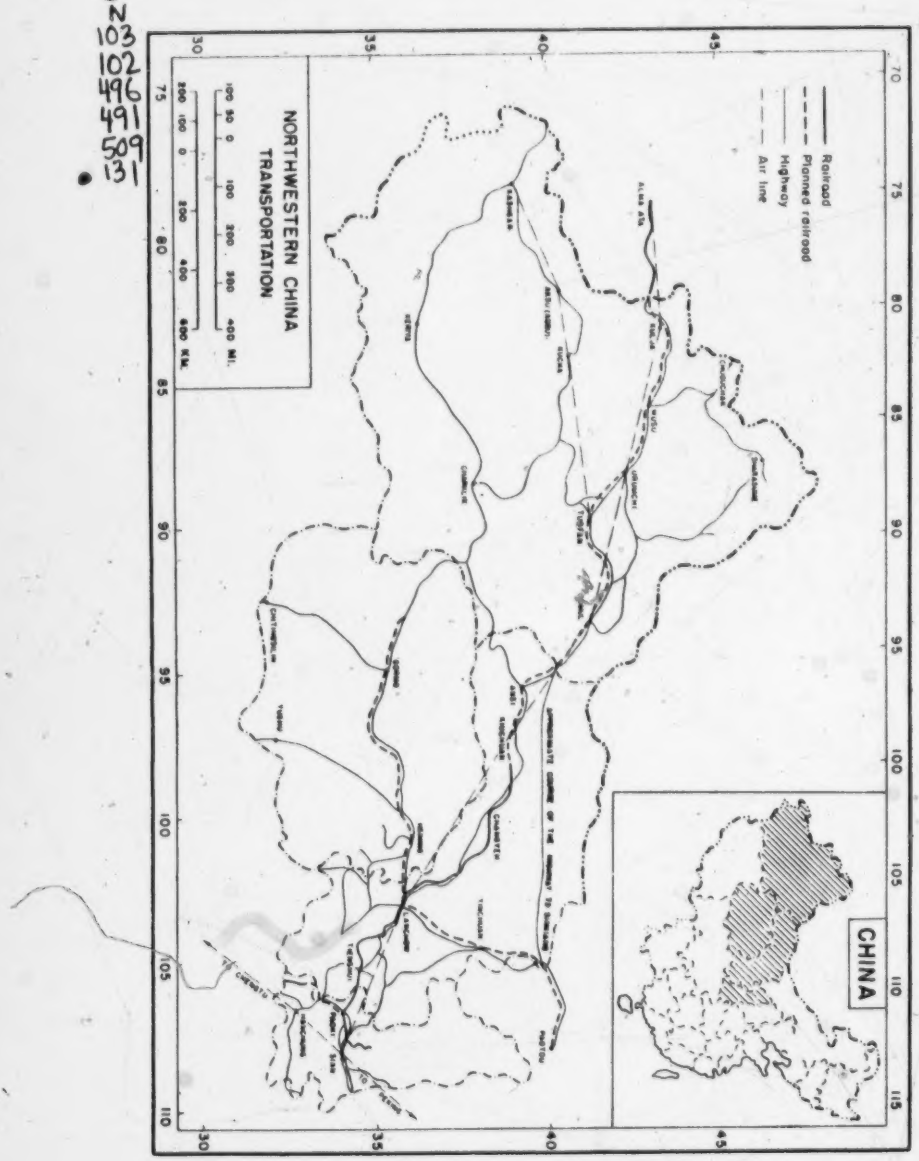

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3:Cable & French M-5 (1926) 1927 AF13 Northwest China AFL3
Sinkiang AI 1

when we asked for protection from the dangers of the road, as they recognised instinctively that : ' Happy is the people whose God is Jehovah.'

It was great joy at one small oasis[1] to be greeted by an old friend, a man who had registered his name in Ansi as an enquirer. He had been appointed as inspector of the poles which carry the single telegraph wire across this part of the desert, the gales so constantly uprooting them that the whole route is divided into sections, each of which is placed in the charge of a responsible man whose business it is to keep them in repair. At a further stage of the journey where the work was not so well arranged, we often found the poles lying flat, our mules' feet being in danger from the entangled coils upon the ground. The line of the trade-route is indicated by this single telegraph wire, which often seems to the despairing traveller the only assurance he has of human things not seen—men, families, cities, and the normal objects of life.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE RAVINE OF BABOONS

At Iris Well we were only thirty long miles from Hsinghsinghsia, the military frontier station of Turkestan. We were anxious to arrive by daylight as we had reason to anticipate delay, and we hoped that twenty-four hours would be sufficient for transacting all business relating to passports and permits ; it was a great relief, therefore, to see the clouds gathering, which meant the promise of a cool day. Taking advantage of this we hurried up all our preparations, and left in good time. At midday we reached the frontier proper—a waterless

[1] [Near Malienking -- Analyst]

3:Cable & French M-5 (1926) 1927 AF13 Northwest China
Sinkiang AI 1

site but marked by a shrine flanked with two high poles. A stake roughly carved to suggest the form of a man was driven into the ground, and its rounded knob was thick with the oil which generations of carters have poured over it as a libation.

We hastened on, and before nightfall came in sight of the Pass, which bears the strange name of 'The Ravine of Baboons.' It was not encouraging to catch sight of a group of soldiers watching us through field-glasses from an eminence. At the entrance to the Ravine we found a military tent pitched, and the guards waiting to question us. The N.C.O. was none too well-mannered. He scoffed at the idea of our carrying so heavy a load of books, and said: 'If you tell me stories like that I'll search your baggage through!' We then produced our passports, which he scrutinised. They were important-looking documents, and evidently impressed him, perhaps the more so because he was wholly illiterate, as we discovered next day. The mere sight of them, however, had a wholesome effect upon him, for he handed them back with an apology for not being able to offer us tea in his tent. We continued our way through the narrow Pass for another two miles, and at every turn of the road soldiers appeared. When we reached the little village we were at once surrounded by a crowd of military, and an officer coming on the scene told us we could not proceed until such a time as the Governor, by telegram, should have indicated his willingness for us to do so. He directed us then to the only vacant room in the place, which was situated in an inn court so small that the carts had to stand in the road outside. The room itself was wretched beyond description. It had no door, while a hole in the wall served as window, so that we were unable for a moment to escape the inspection of the crowd of soldiers. The